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ABSTRACT

Twenty-six social studies educators participated in a conference at Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, in summer 1978 to ascertain the status and goals of social studies education. Specifically, conference participants examined recent social science research, explored curriculum development, and developed social studies classroom activities. The report is intended for use by K-12 educators as they develop and implement social studies programs. It is presented in three sections. Section I defines the purpose of precollege social studies as promoting citizen education and civic literacy and identifies knowledge, skills, and values necessary for a quality social studies program. Section II describes current trends in anthropology, economics, geography, history, political science, and sociology and evaluates these trends for their implications for K-12 social studies. Section III suggests classroom activities related to 16 topics, including infant mortality, community land use, pioneer travel, integration, and teenage drinking laws. The activities involve students in role playing, constructing graphs, map and globe activities, class discussions, making decisions, defining terms, and analyzing photographs. For each activity, information is presented on classroom use, rationale, objectives, procedures, and materials needed. A list of conference participants and staff concludes the document. (DB)

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THE SOCIAL SCIENCES IN THE SCHOOLS:

PURPOSE, TRENDS, ACTIVITIES

by participants in the
Conference on Social Studies Leadership
Indiana University
Summer 1978

Edited by

C. FREDERICK RISINGER

and

ANNE BEVERSDORF

Editorial Advisor: Mary Soley

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INTRODUCTION

In the summer of 1978, leaders in precollege social studies education met on the Indiana University campus at Bloomington in a two-week conference. This meeting, supported by a grant from the National Science Foundation, had three basic objectives. They were:

1. To examine the most recent research findings and the current state of the art of anthropology, economics, geography, history, political science, and sociology, especially as related to precollege social studies education.

2. To explore contemporary issues of curriculum development, educational leadership, and community relations as related to the social studies curriculum.

3. To develop specific classroom activities to serve as models for implementing social science concepts in the precollege curriculum.

At the conference the participants heard presentations by social scientists, curriculum developers, specialists in teacher training, and individuals concerned with public issues directly related to social studies in the schools. Ample time was provided for dialogue between the participants and the specialists and for frequent interchange among the participants and conference staff. The participants were divided into three task forces, each with a specific mission. Their reports became the basis for the three major segments of this document.

It is intended that this report be useful to social studies leaders in a variety of ways. Part One, The Social Studies, A Statement of Purpose, is a rationale for a comprehensive K-12 social studies program. It emphasizes knowledge, skills, and values, and discusses how each contributes to the development of an informed, responsible citizenry. Part Two, Current Trends and Implications for Precollege Social Studies, is a summary of current research and conceptual trends in each of the social sciences of special interest to precollege social studies curriculum planners. Part Three, Model Classroom Activities, is composed of seventeen classroom activities which translate the social science concepts into specific student learning experiences. These activities are not intended to be a comprehensive course in the social sciences: they are examples of how social science ideas can be taught to students of varying abilities and grade levels. All involve active student participation and serve as models for curriculum planning. Each of the three sections can be used separately. For example, Part One could be used as a base for developing a school system's rationale for social studies.

The activities in Part Three could be implemented directly in the classroom or used as a model for student teachers or others involved in curriculum development. Taken together, the entire document could serve as a basis for an inservice curriculum workshop or could be analyzed in successive department meetings. Our primary purpose was to produce a practical document that would be helpful to precollege social studies educators in a variety of ways.

About the participants:

The twenty-six conference participants came from five states and were selected because of their positions of leadership, expertise in curriculum development, and ability to express themselves both orally and in writing. Participants included state supervisors, supervisors of social studies programs in major cities, department heads, and classroom teachers. They worked, ate, lived, and played together for an intensive two-week period. It was an exciting and rewarding experience for all of us.

The Conference Staff

THE SOCIAL STUDIES:

A STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

Definition

Precollege social studies is built on the foundation disciplines of history, geography, economics, sociology, psychology, anthropology, and political science. The specific subjects, courses, and topics that comprise the school curriculum rest on this foundation and focus on the past, present, and future interaction of humans with themselves and their environment. The special purpose of social studies instruction is citizen education and the civic literacy of each individual. Therefore, a sound social studies program should have as its goal the development of a contributing and productive individual possessing self awareness, knowledge, skills, and a sense of responsibility as a member of the family, school, local community, state, nation, and world.

The instructional process should encourage the student to examine and analyze social experiences in order to make well-reasoned decisions that may be revised relative to changing circumstances. Social studies instruction encourages the enhancement of human dignity through learning. This implies the respect of one individual for another person or society irrespective of racial, sexual, or cultural differences.

Human knowledge is a reservoir of data, ideas, concepts, generalizations, and theories which, when combined with reflection, decision-making and participation, allows the student to function rationally and humanely in society. Curriculum content should be drawn from a broad base of the social sciences. The relationship to humanities, natural and physical sciences, and the interdependence of disciplines should be stressed so that a holistic view of the world, its problems, and alternative solutions is developed.

Rationale

The world has witnessed a phenomenal growth in the body of knowledge having particular importance as data in social studies. Change, population growth, the impact of technology and the speed of worldwide communications present compelling challenges to the social studies teacher. While finite limits exist to natural resources, undeveloped and infinite resources lie within the human mind and spirit. Schools have the responsibility for developing this resource to its fullest. Social studies promotes mental and spiritual growth by fostering the learning of knowledge, skills, and values.

Knowledge

Knowledge gained from the social studies curriculum enables students to relate specific phenomena as instances of larger concepts. Social studies knowledge enables individuals to accommodate and cope with a society that is increasingly more complex. Students are able to perceive how decisions which have an impact on individuals and institutions are made in a complex world. Students learn their societies' pasts, customs, and cultures. Knowing this heritage, the individual is able to understand how governmental, environmental, personal, and societal structures have made the self, the nation, and the world what they are today. Students learn basic understandings from which they can make choices concerning the quality of life they would like to create for themselves and others.

Skills

The skills learned from the social studies produce active, thinking citizens of a democratic society rather than passive recipients of sterile information. Among these skills is the ability to reason logically in an uncertain and rapidly changing environment. Reasoning ability is developed through the intellectual processes of observation, data gathering, organizing, analyzing, and interpreting information. As students mature intellectually, they grow in ability to classify, infer, test hypotheses, draw tentative conclusions, and make more sophisticated decisions. Social studies instruction reinforces and expands other academic skills. Reading and vocabulary skills improve by students learning to collect data and to discern the difference between fact and opinion. Writing and speaking skills are emphasized in order to practice effective communication. Growth in mathematical skills is achieved through interpretation of maps, charts and graphs, and application of simple statistics to problem solving. These skills help students function as citizens in family, school, local, national, and global communities.

Values

The development of values compatible with the concept of democratic self-government is essential to the preservation of our society. Social studies instruction encourages individuals to examine values and make judgments. It develops faith in the potential goodness of humanity and allows students to grow in commitment to long established ideals of freedom, justice, and equality.

Students enter schools with value systems learned from past experiences. Recognizing these presently held values, social studies

instruction helps students to examine, sort, and choose from among varied and often conflicting social values.

The spirits of fair play, justice, humaneness, tolerance, pride, understanding, and cooperation are attitudes which allow resolution of conflicts in our pluralistic society. Social studies develops a sense of self worth and provides a frame of reference for lifelong living in a complex and diverse world. Values established by this process are functional from within the small family unit to the realm of international affairs.

Guidelines for Quality Social Studies Education

1. Social studies should be an established part of the school program at all grade levels.

2. The school program should provide adequate time and instructional material for social studies education.

3. The social studies program should deal with the realities of the world.

4. Social studies education in any school should be related to the needs of the immediate community as well as to those of the nation and the world.

5. A district-wide policy statement on philosophy, academic freedom, and professional responsibility should be provided to any and all concerned individuals.

6. Learning experiences, instruction, and classroom atmosphere should support the individual worth and self-respect of every student.

7. The social studies program should include a wide variety of appropriate instructional materials carefully and systematically selected and evaluated.

8. Instructional materials should provide for a wide range of abilities and interest.

9. There should be active teacher input into curriculum development and selection of textbooks and materials.

10. A variety of teaching methods should be employed.

11. Social studies instruction should actively and directly involve the student in the learning process with the teacher as a facilitator.

12. Instruction should focus on cognitive, attitudinal, and skill objectives.

13. Instruction should extend beyond the classroom by using the community as a learning laboratory.

14. Community observation in the classroom should be encouraged.

15. Evaluation of achievement in the social studies should be based on many sources, not just written tests.

16. Staff selection should be based on professional preparation and commitment to the discipline.

17. Social studies teachers should participate regularly in activities which enhance their professional growth, such as inservice workshops, associations, conferences, community affairs, travel, and reading current materials.

18. There should be continuing evaluation of the total program.

THE SOCIAL SCIENCES:

CURRENT TRENDS AND IMPLICATIONS

FOR PRECOLLEGE SOCIAL STUDIES

Anthropology

The major shift in trends in anthropology has been one of emphasis rather than one of dramatic discoveries. Anthropologists are placing increasing stress upon cultures as "ways of living that make sense, given certain preconditions. The anthropology student should be led toward an enthusiastic, unprejudiced view of humans as natural beings who exist in particular environmental and social settings. The discipline is using population demographics and other comparative quantitative techniques much more widely than before. Population demographics, for example, examines the population balances, imbalances, birth and death rates, and similar data for extended periods. These techniques permit a broader, cross-cultural view which illuminates common qualities of humanness as well as an individual culture's features. In this manner anthropology is gradually leaving behind its preoccupation with the bizarre and exotic characteristics of isolated groups.

Four major topics of current investigation include: (1) the theory of evolution, (2) evidence for evolution, (3) sociobiology, and (4) social behavior. The first two areas of research are closely linked. For example, Darwin's theory of evolution emphasized populations, not individuals. The interaction of environment and gene pools over wide spans of space and time have led to species alteration. Geographic isolation, natural selection, and occasional, nonpurposeful mutations have been important contributing elements. Research of the past decade has confirmed earlier fundamentals of the theory when studied as an array of data and not as isolated fossils and fragments. As the theory of evolution has withstood the influx of most new data, it has had to alter some details in accordance with a few striking findings. Richard Leakey's homo habilis discoveries have shown that human-like creatures probably existed in several forms and places at earlier times than suspected before. Educators may wish to utilize Leakey's recently published work, Origins (Dutton, 1977), as a source of further details.

Educators will also need to consult resources in applying the area of sociobiology to precollegiate instruction, for this subfield is one of considerable controversy. Sociobiology explores linkages between humankind's cultural and animal characteristics. An entire spectrum of thought, theory, and opinion exists on this relationship. At one extreme we find thinkers like Richard

Dawkins (The Selfish Gene, Oxford University Press, 1976), who attribute nearly all qualities and actions to the "animalness" of homo sapiens. Accordingly, traits such as violence, dominance, and aggressiveness can be explained as instincts carried over from our earlier origins. In contrast, Marshall Sahlins (The Use and Abuse of Biology, University of Michigan Press, 1976) argues that humans are creatures of learning who manifest the trappings of culture, not physiology. Therefore, aggression and other so-called "species oriented" traits are socially learned and, more importantly, can be altered or reversed. Here, as in other fields of anthropology, teachers may wish to use demographics as a more empirical way of mitigating extremes of theory.

Similar techniques will be found helpful in exploring social behavior with precollegiate students. Objective methodology is essential if we are to study cultures on their own terms. We must learn to define phenomena as they occur in actual settings instead of attributing to them labels making them appear outlandish and foreign. The use of terms like "tribal" or "savage" should be avoided because of the negative connotations they carry.

Economics

It has been said that we are all practicing economists because we are continuously required to make the best use of our limited incomes (resources) in order to satisfy our unlimited wants. If one accepts this broad definition of the field it becomes apparent that economic literacy is necessary for everyone in today's society.

The current status of economics is varied and somewhat confused. Within the discipline it is impossible to carry out controlled experiments, and the formerly accurate explanations of how the economy or parts of the economy change are not accurate anymore. The reason is that a lot of the situations have changed. The largest single change has been in our expectations of what the economy should do. This creates a very basic problem for traditional economic theories. The other problem economics has to face is that everyone thinks they already know everything they need to know about the subject. Everyone is an expert! Everyone knows what "should be done." Of of economists' first concerns is differentiating between economic analysis and economic policy. Value judgments cause a separation in the thinking of economists working in the field today and recent research trends tend not to be too relevant to precollege social studies education.

For example, hardly any of the professional journals are "written in English anymore." It's all math. Speculation has it that of

20,000 members of the American Economics Association, not more than five or six hundred can read the leading journals with the kind of understanding required. The journals are written for a very small group of people who are pushing back the frontier, but most of the profession does not read the journals. Even the journal literature does not discuss "new" findings. There may be very little that is new that economists can specifically identify, but at the research frontier you add a little bit to the already existing knowledge. Any new trends in economics research are so esoteric, and the practice of teaching basic economics so occasional and haphazard at the precollege level, that it is far more important to convey information from the body of existing knowledge than to teach "new trends."

One of the problems in trying to get economics understood, appreciated, and integrated into the social studies curriculum is that many teachers do not like economics, fear economics, and have not studied it in depth. It is difficult to include something in the curriculum that teachers do not understand.

The American Economic Association has a committee on economic education which is seriously concerned about economic understanding at all levels, especially as it deals with social studies goals of developing people in our society to be good citizens who can make intelligent economic decisions.

The spearheading organization at the precollegiate level is the Joint Council on Economic Education. It is a nonprofit organization that works very closely with the American Economic Association's Committee on Economic Education. The Joint Council is a national organization with affiliated councils in most states. State councils are tied into the Joint Council and are in touch with economics departments on many college campuses who often have designated Centers for Economic Education. These Centers filter economic information to the local school districts. Social studies educators should consult the checklist of materials available from the Joint Council and establish contact with a nearby Center for Economic Education.

Frequently, new materials are released by the network of economic councils on education. Two new materials are of particular interest. One is a document available from the Joint Council on Economic Education titled A Framework for Teaching Economics: Basic Concepts. This is the first part of a two-part publication titled Master Curriculum Guide for the Nation's Schools. Part Two deals with strategies for teaching economics. The guides for primary grades (1-3) and the middle grades (4-6) are now completed. The junior high and secondary guides are under publication at present. The second item is being developed jointly by the Joint

Council for Economic Education, the Agency for Instructional Television, the Canadian Council on Economic Education, and a consortium of forty-eight state and provincial agencies. It is a series of fifteen, twenty-minute, video-tape programs titled Trade-Offs. This material is designed to help students think their way through economic problems and increase their understanding of economics. This will be available in January 1979.

Geography

Modern human geography deals with a number of vital issues of general concern to all citizens. These include problems of over-population, world hunger, exhaustion of natural resources, damage to the environment, and chronic urban crises. As in other social sciences, human geography can add new insights to learning by answering key questions of Why and Where things happen. Certain understandings do not result from isolated facts, but from arrays of data, usually graphically represented in various types of maps. Maps project Where phenomena have occurred. Interpretation of these maps attempts to answer Why the phenomenon has occurred.

In describing or explaining the arrangement of the phenomena, five basic themes emerge:

1. Human/Environmental Relationships--the way environmental influences locate and shape human activities in the environment. This includes the number (density) and spread (dispersion) of the objects in a specific area. This method is used, for example, in locating high crime rate areas.

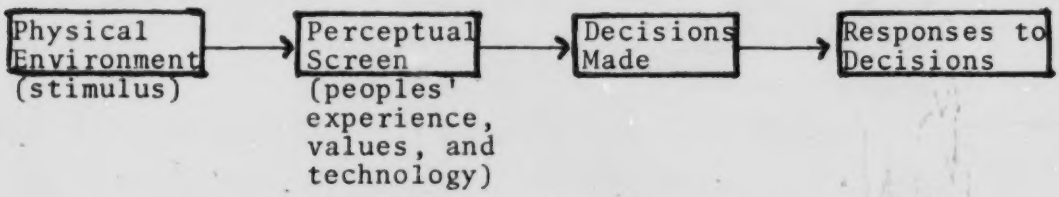
2. Location Theory--why human activity is located where it is and projecting what may be the optimal location of such activities. This method would be used, for example, in determining the location of a new shopping center.

3. Spatial Interaction--the way human activities connect and depend on other activities. The relationships may be positive or negative. An example of one area of such interdependence is found in the study of mode(s) of transportation related to the location of residential homes.

4. Spatial Diffusion--the spread of ideas or objects over time and space. Diffusion may occur slowly or rapidly depending on communication. Differing rates of diffusion can be seen in the spread of new farm techniques from one area to another and from one culture to another.

5. Regionalization--a classification system which takes complex data and establishes manageable, sensible categories.

A typical problem as examined by geographers might be: Why do people locate in flood plain areas? Hypotheses which could answer this question include: People may be unaware of the problem; Inertia; and Economic necessity. A simple chart illustrates how people solve problems of this type:



Several generalizations specifically applicable to precollege educators can be made delineating the status of geography in the schools today.

1. Students in the past have not seen the relevance of geography in their lives.

2. Geography is more concerned with patterns or arrays of data than with isolated geographic facts.

3. Geography is interested in many of the problems explored by other social sciences and can add new insights to and information about these problems.

4. Human geography, when answering Why or Where questions about phenomena or human activities, can enhance the decision-making process.

5. Many geography textbooks do not reflect innovative techniques for answering Why or Where questions about phenomena or human activities.

6. Nontraditional sources of information, such as music, art, and diaries, can aid students in understanding geography.

History

In many ways the specific concerns, new methods and interpretations, and problems, translation, and dissemination of history blend together. Historians are using new methods. Specific quantitative data is collected, computerized, and used to reinterpret traditional views and establish new theories. This

methodological change is linked with a new interest in social history. As a result of new methods and specific social concerns of the 1960's and 1970's, previously ignored segments of society (minorities, women, and less influential members) have been recognized. In addition, the "great white father" theory of American history has given way to concern with the lives of common men and women and an examination of how the total fabric of history weaves together. Most recently, disenchantment with the United States government has led historians to a more exacting examination of the total system.

Of particular relevance to precollege educators is the trend toward social (rather than simply political or military) history. American social history is divided by scholars into two major areas: before and after the advent of industrialization, with 1977 used as the date of division. In the early period, recent scholarship views the colonial period as one of conquest of Indians, not settlement. New attention is given to the makeup of colonial towns; and the decay of Puritan society is seen as instrumental to the nurture of more open religious and political attitudes. Southern slavery is viewed not as an exception to American values but as a solution to a social dilemma involving government participation and stratification within the white society. In this context the American Revolution can be seen as a socially conservative effort on the part of white, male, property owners to establish their independence from England, bolstered by the more genuinely radical concerns of men like Sam Adams and Thomas Paine.

The first half of the nineteenth century has proven itself a productive area for scholarship. Conflict appears at this time between somewhat radical groups who wanted more for more people, on the one hand, and those with power who viewed the revolution as an affirmation of their place in society, on the other. The development of the urban middle class tied to Victorian attitudes emphasizing proper social, sexual, and moral behavior, may not so much be the result of religious faith but may have been necessary for the success of the society as a whole. Strong racial antagonisms existed in the North as well as in the South, and the number of people involved in the abolitionist movement was relatively small before the Civil War. So the Civil War can now be viewed as the result of a whole series of conflicts which did not specifically revolve around slavery or economic issues.

This sort of analysis continues as we enter the postindustrial era. History can no longer be viewed as a set of either/or propositions, but must be seen as a whole series of events where specific incidents have multiple causes and effects. History should not be compartmentalized to the exclusion of an overview.

The period of 1933-1965 is a critical period of American history. Here a change occurs in the way Americans view the role and complexity of the federal government. Involved legislative practices and new executive powers enhance the view of government as a provider of welfare services at home and protection from threat abroad. Watergate may eventually be seen as a caution against--as well as a final confirmation of--the role of big government.

These new methods, concerns, and interpretations have resulted in changing interests, attitudes, and ideas about what is taught in history classrooms. Translation and dissemination of information are, of course, basic. The actual sources of historical information (For what purposes was it produced and in what form?) need monitoring. Research from scholars is often too awkward and difficult for the general historian, let alone the student. However, more popular sources may be irresponsible.

Particularly, history should not be taught as an attempt to predict the future from the past. It should instead give the student an analytical perspective. Students need to be able to distinguish between assertions and evidence, between scholarly books and fictional or sensational pieces, and should know how to investigate the sources of evidence and assertions. These skills are useful, of course, not only in history, but in other disciplines as well.

Today's history students must be able to cope with multiple validities and the absence of absolute answers. They must be able to examine social history and governmental policies and discover the interrelationships. Teachers need to relate one time period and set of issues to another, and help each student develop an individual sense of how the past is different from the present.

Political Science

Several areas of political science research have gained importance since the post-World War II "behavioral revolution." In that earlier period, the field was most noted for studies of voting behavior and political socialization. Much of its work focused on election feedback and other quantified data, largely in an effort to create a more distinct, "legitimate" discipline. Many political scientists did engage in theory, but generally used concrete government institutions or well defined populations as targets of interpretation.

This research approach produced considerable descriptive information and eventually broadened enough to encompass studies of "real politics" and the micro-level of political activity. However, most studies were of limited utility in explaining more subtle and complex factors underlying the political fabric. As citizens gazed into the political mirror which emerged, they

did not seem to be gaining the types of insights which would significantly affect self-understanding or efficacy.

Therefore, in recent years many political scientists have sought to broaden the scope of their discipline. This has been especially true as new societal concerns and pressures have surfaced. "Politics" has become a far wider concept than the struggle for power as tied directly to institutions of government. Five major areas within this expanding research realm which have especially strong implications for social studies education are:

1. Policy Analysis--There is a new focus upon politics as a process of decision-making in which alternatives and consequences are appropriately examined.

2. Political Participation--The notion of participation reaches beyond the idea of voting behavior. A person's political efficacy bears heavily upon a calculus (formula or method of analysis) which determines whether or not participation is worthwhile. And participation entails roles more varied than "leader" and "follower." It is more realistic to characterize a spectrum of roles: observer; supporter, advocate; facilitator; and organizer.

3. Forecasting--Computer methodology has contributed to the increased projection of trends and alternative futures. However, critical concern with present problems and the recognition that forecasting is subject to error have mitigated against wide application of this research thrust.

4. Multinational Corporations (MNCs)--As a recently recognized locus of power, MNCs are receiving increasing attention from political scientists. In turn, the notion of "transnational citizenship" is being examined.

5. School Political Life--Contemporary studies suggest that there may not be a linear relationship between the openness of a system of school governance and the activity and positive attitudes of the students, faculty and others affected.

Several even newer research concerns which are emerging also have a place in the social studies curriculum. As our society responds to new influences research is examining factors such as:

1. Effects of the mass media, particularly television, upon political attitudes and participation;

2. Effects of "the changing family" upon political attitudes and participation;

3. Special concerns of developing nations;

4. The notion of "political illiteracy"--What do people know about their political systems, laws, etc? What do they need to know in order to function effectively in the political framework?

As political science seeks to become more than the study of elections, its researchers are using concepts from other social sciences to present more comprehensive analyses. Historical and cross-cultural perspectives are more frequently applied, as are basic economic concepts. Business/government relationships are clearly of growing importance in this regard. Geographers are contributing data about concerns like energy, food distribution, and population. And sociological findings about social stratification and group dynamics continue to have impact upon political science as they have for many years.

Political science as a discipline is clearly in a period of expansion. Many possibilities exist for the application of new trends to the social studies curriculum, particularly as educators define "citizenship education" in the context of a rapidly changing society with rapidly changing demands.

Sociology

Sociology has traditionally been defined as the scientific study of group behavior. Over the past twenty years great emphasis has been placed upon the "scientific approach." Sociological analysis and sociological data have been the key foci for curriculum development. Sociologists have been thought to deal with social problems in a unique, scientific way.

Sociology is definitely eclectic. It is a combination of all other social sciences with the addition of philosophy and mathematical statistics. This represents a coupling of the nineteeth century origins of the discipline with modern-day, statistical methodology. It is still a study of social life. The focus is interaction and society. Specifically, sociology is a "reactive discipline"--meaning it is affected both by what goes on generally in our society and by social conditions defined at a particular time.

Current sociological study can be trivial or important psychologically, politically, and economically. Sociology can be divided into six division facets for organizing the spectrum of current

sociological trends. The first five are ways in which sociologists think, plan, and do research. The sixth deals with the kind of information being dealt with.

1. Soft/Hard--"Soft" is usually attached to the word "data," meaning the evidence has been gathered through observation, thus providing impressionistic details. In contrast, "hard data" is gathered through systematic, quantified study.

2. Empirical/Theoretical--In empirical design, quantities of data about specific group behaviors may be compiled without theory formulation. Theorists, on the other hand, are primarily concerned with the way the world functions.

3. Radical/Liberal/Conservative--Whereas the radical concerns him or herself with "freeing people," and liberals are concerned with the "righting of wrongs," the conservative says, "What we have is good; don't change it." Whichever of these philosophies a given sociologist espouses will affect the questions he or she asks and the way he or she interprets data.

4. Natural/Experimental--The natural/experimental difference is determined by what subjects in sociological research are asked to do or not to do. "Natural" refers to observing subjects who are already in a group setting. "Experimental" means deliberately setting up what persons are to do, as well as not do, in the control group.

5. Basic (Pure)/Applied--These terms focus on the intent for which knowledge is gathered. Basic (or pure) research is for the sake of the knowledge itself. If research is "applied" there is strong interest in gathering data for the sake of change. When sociological study is examined as a whole it should be a combination of both empirical and theoretical pursuits.

6. Micro/Macro--Various micro methodologies (which represent a socio-psychological approach) are:

   6.1 Ethnomethodology--the study of how people negotiate day-to-day reality. An example of this would be a study of how people make contact with one another on the street. The assumption tested may be that the various ways contacts are made indicate social origin.

6.2 Symbolic Interaction--This explores the process of "becoming." It may define the problem as Michael Harrington did in The Other America (Macmillan, 1970). The definition leads to legitimizing symbols of the problem, bringing about mobilization for action, creation of a plan for action, and implementation of the action.

6.3 Participant Observation--This usually results in soft data. The anthropologist Liebow records his "natural" kinds of experiences while living at a street corner in Washington D.C. (Tally's Corner, Elliot Liebow, Little, 1967).

One link between the above three methods is the way in which they each reveal that society is a structure greater than the individual pattern of interaction. Social structure exists because roles are understood and reinforced. The structure created by people is not static and is changeable.

6.4 Experiments--This method leans on experimental psychology. An example is the Milgram (from Yale) study: "Why do good, ordinary people commit inhuman acts?" The experiment involved an unknowing volunteer being told by an authority figure to increase the electrical shock being given to a confederate (knowing participant). There is always valid concern in using humans in such behavioral experimentation.

On the macro-level two major trends have emerged from the mid-sixties into the present. These are (1) much concern with the quantitative, using the math technology, and (2) a recent historical emphasis represented by consideration of the long term (or historical) perspective on a phenomenon. This new dynamic blends quantitative data with the historical perspective. Macro shifts in sociological emphasis include:

6.5 A shift from an interest in international relationships based on "needs achievement," to a world system theory which recognizes the economic-political interrelationships of all countries.

6.6 A shift from the traditional focus on "disorganization" and "relative deprivation" as reasons for collective action and violence, to a focus on resource mobilization which includes time, money, and people in power.

Although psychology, as a separate discipline, was not one of the six disciplines designated to be studied at this conference, several speakers alluded to it in their presentations. It was pointed out that national figures indicate that secondary student enrollment is increasing at a higher rate in psychology courses than in any other social studies field.

Several approaches have been developed, varying from the study of human problems to a general survey of the entire field. Different degrees of emphasis have been placed upon physiological vs. environmental influences on human behavior. The trend in newly established courses seems to be toward self-understanding and social adjustment and away from the scientific experimentation and empirical analyses which have usually been the basis for college-level instruction.

As specialized training becomes more readily available to teachers of psychology courses, and as additional materials are developed, the study of psychology at the secondary school level will, perhaps, become closer to "the scientific study of behavior"--the traditional and most currently accepted definition of the field.

Sociological and psychological analysis and data will continue to be relevant to teachers who employ a problem-solving curriculum. Key concepts in sociology are "socialization process," "social institutions," and "social change." The new focus will be on presenting social change within a historical context as well as borrowing theoretical and empirical material from other disciplines.

MODEL CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

COINS AND SKATEBOARDS:
WHAT DO THEY TELL US?

Suggested Classroom Use: Anthropology
U.S. History
World History

Rationale

The purpose of this lesson is to help students develop their ability to examine a set of facts and draw inferences from them.

Objectives

1. Students will draw inferences about a society based on data that can be collected by observing a coin.

2. Students will recognize that this technique is used by anthropologists.

Procedures

1. Inform students that they are going to participate in an experiment in anthropological studies.

2. Ask students to take whatever coins they have in their pockets or purses and place them on the tables in front of them.

3. Present the students with the following scenario:

   "Assume you are a part of a National Geographic Society archeology expedition in this area in the year 2179 A.D. While excavating nearby you found the coins which are in front of you now. You cannot read any of the language on these coins and have no historical information about the people who used the coins. What can you deduce about the culture (people) who produced and used these coins just by examining them? List and explain any deductions you find sensible and logical about the culture. Give as much detail as you can."

   Students may list such things as: existence of a system of numbers and writing; metallurgy was rather advanced; faces on coins may be gods or heroes; there may have been animal worship; the society had a developed technology.

4. Ask students to think of other artifacts in our culture and what they would tell archaeologists who might find them hundreds of years from now. Brainstorm the inferences that

could be drawn from such items as skateboards, false eyelashes, musical instruments, grocery carts, etc. Reemphasize that inferences are based on evidence but are not always accurate. The more substantiating data that can be gathered, the more likely the inferences are to be true.

Materials

1. Writing materials.
2. Assignment sheet (OPTIONAL).
3. Coins belonging to students.
4. Sense of humor.

Note: Alternatives to items listed above might include the future discovery of a "Planet of the Apes" type movie, television programs, building cornerstones, etc.

INFANT MORTALITY

Suggested Classroom Use: Anthropology
Global Studies
Geography
World History

Rationale

This lesson focuses on a recent trend in anthropology--dealing with a modern society from a sociological perspective. Students will examine a graph of U.S. infant mortality rates comparing those of different ethnic and racial origins. Students will read and interpret information, work in groups, and summarize ideas expressed in groups.

Objectives

1. Students will compare infant mortality rates for whites and nonwhites after reading a graph depicting the infant mortality rates by races, 1915-1975.
2. After comparing nonwhite and white infant mortality rates, students will speculate about the causes.
3. Students will share their speculations in groups and write brief summaries of the group ideas.

Procedures

1. Have students examine the graph individually for five to eight minutes. Place the following questions on the board as guides:
   - 1.1 Which group has the highest mortality rate?
   - 1.2 What happened to the mortality rates between 1915 and 1975 in both groups?
   - 1.3 Which group (white or nonwhite) shows the largest improvement in infant mortality?
2. Discuss the answers to the above questions with the class.
3. Divide the class into groups of three to four students and have each group write the answers to these questions:

3.1 Why have nonwhites had higher infant mortality rates than whites?

3.2 Why has the infant mortality rate gone down since 1915? List the reasons.

3.3 Why was the gap wider in 1915 than in 1920?

3.4 What groups make up the largest portion of the nonwhite population?

3.5 Which nonwhite group do you think would have the greatest number? Why?

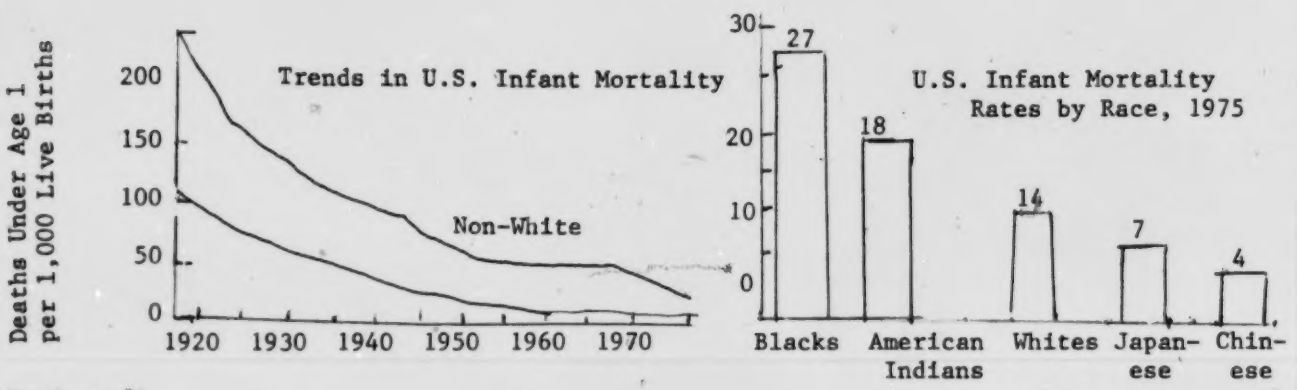
4. Discuss each group's hypotheses with the class.

5. Have students read the explanation of infant mortality to check their hypotheses. Compare these sets of conclusions.

Materials

1. Graph of "Trends in U.S. Infant Mortality Rates by Race, 1915-1975." (Handout #1, attached)

2. Reading, "World Infant Mortality." (Handout #2, attached) This describes the concept of mortality rate and factors that influence it in the U.S. and the world.



Handout #1

Handout #2

World Infant Mortality

One of the most hazardous events in life is birth. Of the 125 million children born worldwide in 1977, about 13 million will die either at birth or before reaching their first birthday.

The chances of early death are highest in the developing countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America, and lowest in the industralized countries of Europe, North America, Australia, New Zealand, and Japan. The chart on the reverse shows infant mortality rates worldwide.

The infant mortality rate is the annual number of deaths to infants under one year of age per 1,000 live births in the same year.

Infant mortality has often been used as a general measure of development because declines in infant mortality usually reflect improvements in social and economic conditions. Improved nutrition, medical care, and public sanitation usually lower the infant mortality rate.

In fact, the big difference in infant mortality rates between developed and developing countries is the large number of environmentally-caused deaths in the Third World, taking place after the first month of life but before age one. The leading causes of infant deaths in the developing world are parasites, pneumonia, influenza, diarrhea, and infectious diseases, all of which have been largely eliminated in the developed world.

Causes of death in the first month of life, however, are similar in both the developing and developed countries, resulting largely from deformities, birth injuries, immaturity, and incomplete expansion of the lungs in the newborn child.

Maternal Factors

Certain characteristics of the mother are predictors of infant mortality: her age, health, and the number of living children she has.

The safest period for a woman to bear a child is between the ages of 20 and 30. Teenagers and women over 35 run a far higher rist of problematic pregnancies, maternal death, or infant death.

A mother's health, especially her level of nutrition, affects the health of her infant. Poorly nourished, weak women are more apt to have stillbirths or low-weight infants. In turn, infants with low birth weights (below 2,500 grams or about 5½ pounds) are more susceptible to disease and are therefore more likely to die than babies of normal weight.

The number of children a woman has is also related to infant mortality. After the third birth, incidences of maternal death, stillbirth, and infant mortality be-bin to rise, and increase with each additional child.

Likewise, the spacing of births affects infant health, especially where nutritional levels are low. The closer together a woman bears children, the less strength she has to nurse the latest born and the fewer nutrients she has to support the growing fetus. Hence, children born close together have less chance of survival.

Socioeconomic Factors

In the United States infant mortality rates have traditionally varied according to race and socioeconomic status. As the chart at the left above shows, nonwhite Americans have always had higher infant death rates than whites.

In 1920, the nonwhite infant mortality rate was comparable to some of the highest infant mortality rates in the developing world today. It was almost twice the white rate of that time.

The difference between the nonwhite and white rates, however, has declined dramatically in recent years.

But as the chart on the right above shows, there is still a considerable difference in infant mortality rates among races in the United States, indicating social and economic inequalities.

(Although Chinese and Japanese Americans do in fact have the lowest infant mortality rates in the United States, the Chinese and Japanese rates shown above are artificially low because of inconsistent registration practices, whereby a child may be classified as Chinese or Japanese at birth but as white at death.)

Reducing Infant Mortality

Probably the most effective way to lower infant mortality rates in the developing world is to increase the overall standard of living, bringing with it improved nutrition medical care and public sanitation. In addition, educational programs dealing with pre- and postnatal care, nutrition and family planning would also improve the health of mothers and infants.

In the United States, the best hope for lowering infant death rates is to improve the economic, educational and health opportunities of minority groups.

Indeed, for one of the richest countries in the world, the United States has not recorded especially low infant mortality rates as the table below indicates. The U.S. is ranked only 14th lowest in the world and has an infant mortality rate twice that of Sweden. Until recently, the U.S. ranked only 16th.

15 Countries with Lowest Infant Mortality Rates 1977

RANK		RATE
1.	Sweden	8
2.	Japan	10
3.	Finland	10
4.	Netherlands	11
5.	Norway	11
6.	Iceland	11
7.	France	12
8.	Switzerland	12
9.	Denmark	12
10.	Spain	14
11.	Singapore	14
12.	Canada	15
13.	Luxembourg	15
14.	United States	16
15.	United Kingdom	16

From January 1978,
Social Education

WHAT ARE YOUR ROOTS?

Suggested Classroom Use: U.S. History
Sociology

Rationale

One way to make American history more meaningful to students is to have them investigate their own family "roots." This lesson will help students become aware of their own ethnic background and the diversity of cultures which has made American culture. Students will also become aware of the physical and social mobility in their heritages.

Objectives

1. Students will be able to define the terms which follow: migration; immigration; cultural heritage; mobility; ethnic background.

2. Students will become aware of the diversities of ethnic culture represented in their class.

3. Students will hypothesize about why people move away from their family's original home.

4. Students will gain awareness of their own ethnic and cultural backgrounds.

Procedures

1. Tell students that they will investigate their own family histories. Hand out the questionnaire and have the students take a few days to locate the information.

2. Collect the questionnaires and tabulate the results. Go over the results for questions one through five discussing the concept of physical mobility and the reasons why people move. Discuss the repercussions, if any, this high degree of mobility has had on the family. Are families as close as they were when everyone stayed in the same community? How has the role of the family in American life changed? Why do people move away?

3. For questions five through ten, discuss with the students the concept of immigration. Explain possible reasons why their ancestors left homelands to come to America. What did America offer to make it so attractive to millions of people?

4. Using a world map, help students identify the countries and areas of the world from which their ancestors came. Discuss individual cultural contributions made by various ethnic groups to American culture.

Materials

Copies of the following questionnaire:

1. Were you born in this city?
2. In how many houses have you lived since you were born?
3. Were either of your parents born in this city? Both? Neither?
4. How many of your grandparents were born in this city?
5. How many of your great-grandparents were born in this city?
6. Were you born in the United States?
7. How many of your parents were born in the United States?
8. How many of your grandparents were born in the United States?
9. How many of your great-grandparents were born in the United States?
10. In about what year was your oldest great-grandparent born?
11. List the countries from which your ancestors came to the United States.

Adapted from: Judd, Barbara, Teachers Guide for a New History of the United States, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969, p. 33.

THE OPPORTUNITY COST OF DECISION MAKING

Suggested Classroom Use: Economics
U.S. History

Rationale

This economics lesson for fourth to sixth grade elementary students is designed to help them make decisions. Most people believe "cost" means the "dollar and cents amount paid for an item." This lesson will expand that view to include the idea that when money is spent one way it precludes spending it on something else. Opportunity cost is what is given up when decisions are made on how to spend money or resources available.

Objectives

1. Students will be able to make a decision on how to spend an amount of money.
2. Students will be able to list the criteria they used for making their decision.
3. Students will be able to state the opportunity cost of their decision.

Procedures

1. Each student should pretend to have $15 to spend for one or several items or forms of entertainment. They may also wish to invest or save all or part of the money.
2. Point out that there are positive and negative aspects to each decision they might make. Demonstrate this on the board with the following example:

   Shall I purchase a soccer ball or a skateboard?

Soccer Ball	Positive:	Fun; good exercise; friends will play with me.
	Negative:	Can only be used in summer; have to play in a field in another neighborhood.
Skateboard	Positive:	Fun; can go fast; won't have to borrow one.
	Negative:	No hills near my house; dangerous; Mom and Dad against it.

3. Have students state criteria they might use in choosing one over the other. Ask what is important to each of them. Point out that each person's criteria is different depending on each individual's values and wants.

4. Pass out advertisements, store catalogues, or magazines which list prices for items that your students might be interested in purchasing. Have students write down all they would want to buy with the $15. Have them list positive and negative aspects of each potential purchase.

5. Have students decide on how they will spend their money. They should write down reasons for their decision.

6. Have students state the "opportunity cost" of their decision: for example, "The opportunity cost of buying a soccer ball for $15 is the fact that I couldn't also buy a skateboard. I chose a soccer ball because more people can play with me."

7. Help students apply the concept of opportunity cost by creating other situations besides purchasing items or spending money. Discuss the idea of opportunity cost using an example such as reducing or extending the lunch period for the school. Summarize by pointing out what decisions we make about our time, talents, and resources involve opportunity costs.

HOW MUCH IS A TRILLION DOLLARS?

Suggested Classroom Use: Economics
Civics
Government

Rationale

All of us often hear the total amount of the national budget, national debt, or gross national product without comprehending the "bigness" of the amount involved. This lesson will help students understand the enormity of the figure and the comparative enormity of our economy.

Objectives

1. Students will be able to define what is included in the GNP figure.

2. Students will become aware of the enormity of the U.S. GNP by relating it to an amount they are familiar with.

Procedures

1. Give the students the following definition of the term "gross national product": "The GNP is the assessed value in U.S. dollars of all the goods and services produced in a nation during a specific period (like a year). It comprises the total expenditures by consumers and government plus gross private investment."

2. Give students the most current U.S. GNP figure.

3. Pass out or relate information found in the article "How Much is One Trillion Dollars?" (U.S. News, February 20, 1978).

4. After discussing the news article, let students find how long it would take to count to a trillion orally. Let each student count as fast as possible for one minute. Take the highest result and start figuring! (Highest number X 60 minutes X 24 hours X 365 days = total for one year. Divide total for one year into one trillion to see how many years it would take.)

5. Point out that this number of years assumes:

   5.1 We can all count as fast as the class' fastest counter,

   5.2 We can say all numbers as fast as we can say 101, 102, 103, etc.

Materials

"How Much is One Trillion Dollars?" U.S. News, February 20, 1978. (attached)

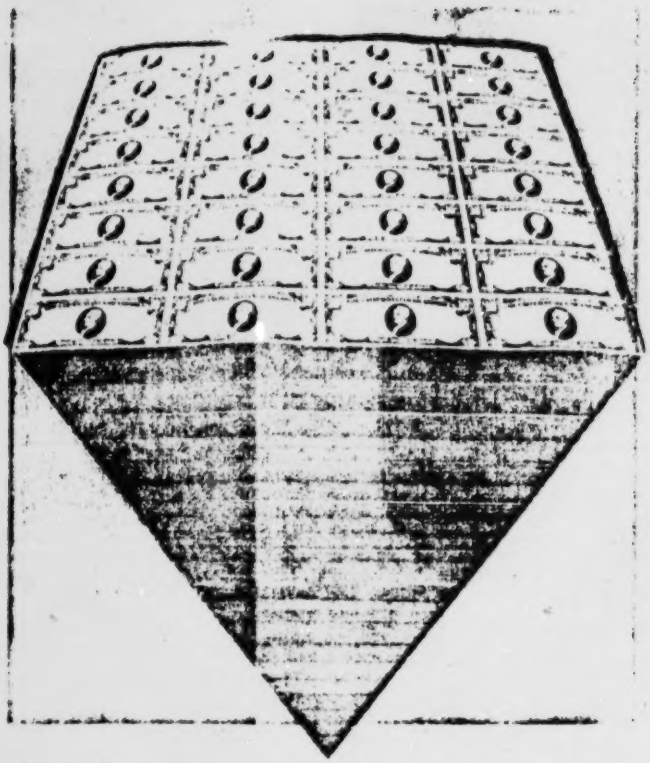
How Much Is 1 Trillion Dollars?

It's a trillion-dollar world for Americans now.

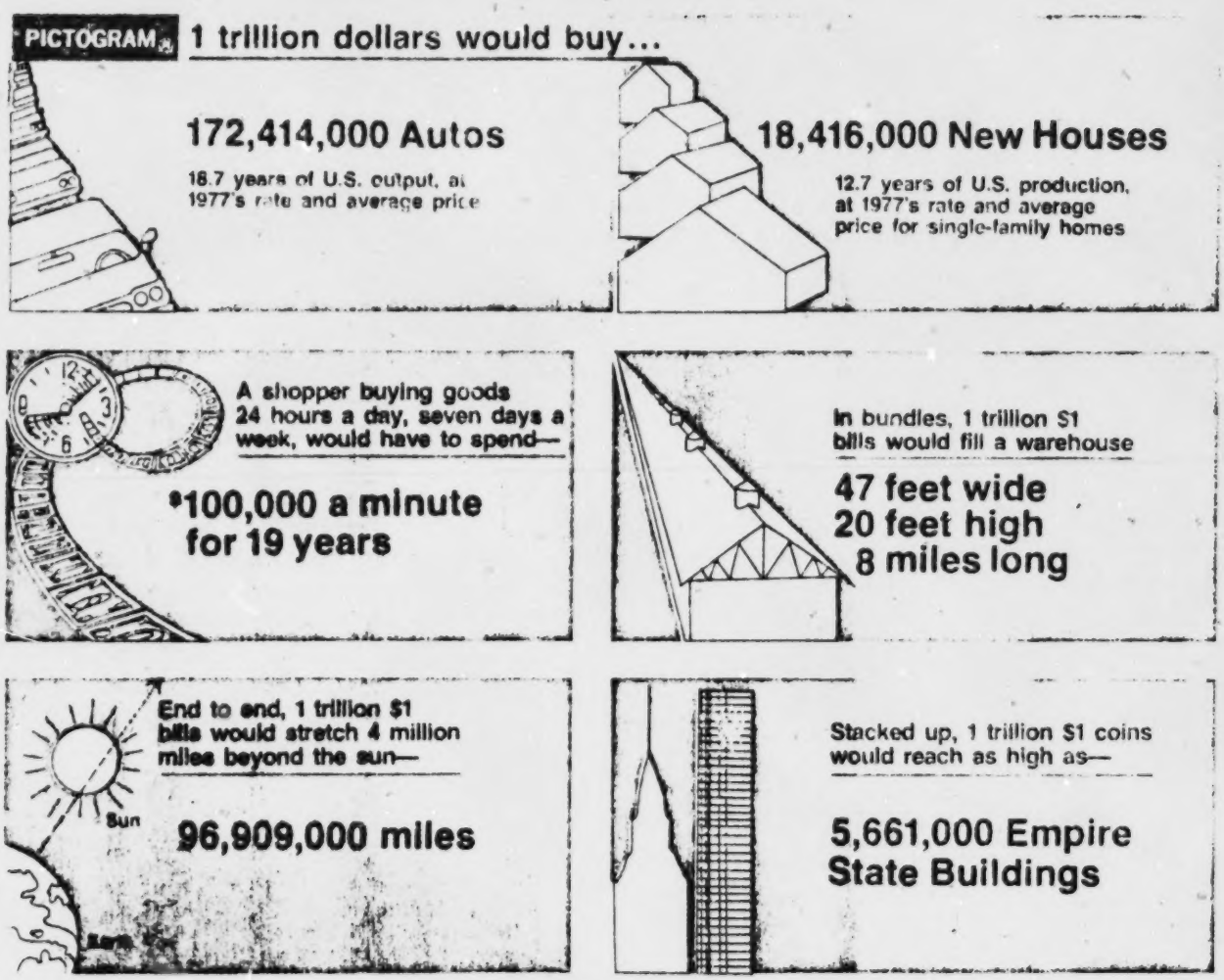
The U.S. economy will churn out goods and services at the rate of 2 trillion dollars a year before 1978 is over.

Public debt of the U.S. government is approaching 1 trillion dollars.

Spending by Washington will top 500 billion—a half trillion—dollars during the year that starts October 1 if President Carter's plans are carried out.



For a look at what 1 trillion dollars amounts to, here are six measures—


PICTOGRAM
1 trillion dollars would buy...
172,414,000 Autos
18.7 years of U.S. output, at 1977's rate and average price
18,416,000 New Houses
12.7 years of U.S. production, at 1977's rate and average price for single-family homes
A shopper buying goods 24 hours a day, seven days a week, would have to spend—
$100,000 a minute for 19 years
In bundles, 1 trillion $1 bills would fill a warehouse
47 feet wide
20 feet high
8 miles long
End to end, 1 trillion $1 bills would stretch 4 million miles beyond the sun—
Sun
96,909,000 miles
Stacked up, 1 trillion $1 coins would reach as high as—
5,661,000 Empire State Buildings

Source: U.S. Depts. of the Treasury, Commerce, Federal Home Loan Bank Board, World Almanac, Automotive Reports, USN&WR Economics Dept.

EVERYBODY'S EQUAL . . . AREN'T THEY?

Suggested Classroom Use: Economics
Sociology
U.S. History

Rationale

One important current trend in economics is to develop economic decision-making skills in students. Perhaps the most basic economic principle is the concept of relatively unlimited wants and relatively limited resources, creating the need for economic choices. The following is a fairly simple simulation which demonstrates the economic dilemma of how individuals try to satisfy as many wants as possible. It can be used with any secondary class.

Objectives

1. Students will gain awareness of problems involved in balancing needs with available resources.
2. Students will be able to identify the effects of racist and sexist economic discrimination in the United States.
3. Students will be able to identify economic problems faced by groups other than their own.

Procedures

1. Divide the class into four groups: white males, white females, black males, and black females. Students should randomly draw for their roles. There should be equal numbers of males and females and five times as many whites as blacks.
2. A game consists of ten rounds. Each round represents one year.
3. Each student receives the following allocation of money each round (year):

    3.1 White males - $100

    3.2 White females - $60

    3.3 Black males - $60

    3.4 Black females - $60

4. At the end of each round, students may purchase any of the following items for the price indicated:

   4.1 Color television - $4
   4.2 Vacation - $6
   4.3 Home - $300
   4.4 Boat - $30
   4.5 Appliances - $15 each
   4.6 Medical care - $5
   4.7 Education - $6
   4.8 Necessities - $40
   4.9 Automobile - $30
   4.10 Insurance - $6

5. All items, except vacation, medical care, education, necessities, and insurance, may be purchased on an installment plan. However, not paying cash for any item increases its price by 25%.

6. Students may voluntarily marry, thus combining their salaries. All married women, however, must roll twice each year for babies (see rule number seven).

7. Each round, all females must roll one die (married women and black women must roll twice each round) and if a "one" appears they have had a baby. Having a baby means:

   7.1 The woman, if married, gets no salary for the next year.

   7.2 The woman, if not married, must go on welfare for the next year.

   7.3 Necessities cost $50 for the next year.

8. Any student who does not purchase the Necessities each year dies and is out of the game. (Loans and gifts are permissible.)

9. Anyone who buys Education four times receives $20 more salary beginning in the next round.

10. All players roll the dice three times each round to determine:

    10.1 if they have become unemployed.

    10.2 if they have become seriously ill.

    10.3 if they have suffered a personal disaster.

11. Any white person who rolls either a 2 or a 12 suffers one of the above depending upon which of his three rolls that number appeared. Any black student suffers the same fate when he or she rolls a 2, 3, 11, or 12.

12. Any person who becomes unemployed may receive welfare, which amounts to $45 per year.

13. Any person who becomes seriously ill is saved if they have purchased medical care. If not, they die.

14. Any person who suffers a personal disaster loses nothing if he or she has purchased insurance. All personal property will be lost if insurance was not purchased.

15. Extra money may be invested each year in the following ways:

    15.1 Investments in securities.

    15.2 Investments in savings accounts.

    15.3 Gambling.

16. Investments in securities pay at the following rates:

    16.1 2 or 12 on the dice brings a 15% return.

    16.2 3 or 11 on the dice brings a 10% return.

    16.3 4 or 10 on the dice brings a 9% return.

    16.4 5 or 9 on the dice brings an 8% return.

    16.5 6 or 7 on the dice brings a 7% return.

17. Gambling pays as follows:

    17.1 2 or 12 on the dice brings 10 to 1.

    17.2 3 or 11 on the dice brings 5 to 1.

    17.3 All other numbers lose.

18. At the end of ten rounds (years) have each student tell the class what he or she owns. Follow that with a very extensive debriefing in which students indicate why they made the economic decisions they did and what their feelings were about the problems they faced. Discuss the biases in the system. Discuss the idea of the "cycle of poverty" and what inflation means in terms of decreasing buying power. Discuss which aspects of the game were realistic and which were not. Summarize by asking the students to share what they learned about decisions and economic conditions.

Materials

1. Several pairs of dice.
2. Individual student scoresheets.

COMMUNITY LAND USE*

Suggested Classroom Use: Geography
Civics
Government

Rationale

People usually do not recognize how their community has changed unless they have lived there for a long time. The purpose of this lesson is to help students recognize changing land use in their community. Students will develop geography skills by examining the use of buildings and land in their community.

Objectives

1. Students will be able to identify the changes in the use of land and buildings over time.
2. Students will be able to recognize that land and buildings are used for several purposes.
3. Students will be able to recognize that building and land use can affect the aesthetic appearance of a community.

Procedures

1. Introduce the idea of land and building use by having students research the following questions:

   1.1 How long has our school building been on this piece of land?

   1.2 What was on the land before the school was built?

   1.3 What do you think will be standing on this land fifty years from now?

   Ask the students for suggestions of people and places where answers to these questions might be found. Possible information sources include the local library, the local historical society, school administrators, and the local newspaper archives.

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*Adapted from "Geography in the Social Studies Curriculum" by Elmer D. Williams and Robert N. Saveland.

2. Divide the class into groups to find answers to the first two questions.

3. Have the groups make brief reports of their findings to the class.

4. Ask students how land in their community is used. Write their suggestions (such as stores, homes, roads, parks, hospitals, etc.) on the board.

5. Ask students to recall the names of commercial establishments in their community. Write these on the board. Categorize these commercial establishments according to the services or goods they provide--for example:

   Penney's--clothing, appliances, hardward, etc.
   Barnett's--bookstore
   Joseph's--hair cutting and styling
   Union Bank--banking service
   Post Office--postal services
   Nick's--restaurant and entertainment

6. Arrange a field trip to a community shopping area other than a newly built mall. Divide students into groups of four to five. Have one student in each group act as a recorder of the following information:

   6.1 From the store name or window display, what products or services does each establishment provide?

   6.2 Which building signs are obviously changed or altered versions of earlier signs? Remnants of signs on buildings are good indicators of the changing use of the building. When appropriate, ask store owners if they know how the building was used prior to their occupancy.

   6.3 In what dates were the different buildings constructed? In what different ways were the individual buildings used?

   6.4 How many buildings are vacant? For what purposes has the building previously been used?

7. Back in the classroom, have each group compile their findings on large pieces of paper and post them around the room.

8. Discuss students' findings about land use in their community. Use the following questions as a basis for discussion.

   8.1 What services and goods seemed most predominant in the shopping area? What does that imply about the needs and wants of the community?

8.2 What are some previous uses of the buildings? How have the needs of the community changed?

8.3 What do vacant buildings indicate about changes in the community?

8.4 Why are buildings located where they are?

9. Discuss the aesthetic question of land and building use in the community. The following questions can promote discussion.

9.1 What does "aesthetic value of a community" mean?

9.2 What specific areas and buildings in the community do you find aesthetically pleasing?

9.3 Which buildings or areas would you like to see restored or changed? Why?

9.4 What do you think would be a visitor's reaction to our community based on our building and land use?

9.5 What would you like the community to look like?

10. Summarize the lesson by pointing out that building and land use changes are based on the needs and wants of a community's people.

Materials

1. Poster paper for classification purposes.

2. One spiral notebook for each group of four students.

3. "Before and after" photographs of building or land use. Photographs may be available from newspapers, public libraries, chambers of commerce, etc.

HOW ENVIRONMENT AFFECTS SOCIETAL CULTURES

Suggested Classroom Use: Geography
Environmental Studies
Global Studies
Anthropology

Rationale

Students often become embarrassed and excited when they see others who look markedly different or who have different life-styles. The exercise that follows will help children understand these differences and develop defendable generalizations about them.

Research suggests that we need to teach students to study facts before forming generalizations. This lesson uses data gathering skills enabling students to systematically study how environment affects human behavior. The concept goal is that societies in different parts of the world having similar ecologies will build similar cultural patterns. Such groups are more alike than different.

Recent studies show conclusively that children learn more readily when they are actively involved. Here students will not study about data gathering. They will do it. Children with many levels of reading/studying ability can participate in meaningful ways because this exercise is based upon graph and picture analyses. The prerequisite skills are knowing how to (1) use encyclopedias and atlases, (2) read temperature and rainfall graphs, and (3) use a world map meaningfully and recognize map symbols.

Objectives

1. Students will be able to gather pertinent facts.
2. Students will be able to use these facts to form generalizations about cultural patterns.
3. Students will be able to express these generalizations in a concise paragraph.

Procedures

1. Assign each student an area to study. These will be the broad zones indicated on the globe (e.g. Arctic, Subarctic, Temperate, Subtropic, and Tropic zones). Several children will be working with the same zones and they will later form groups to compare notes and evolve a composite report.

2. On the first day, each child will study the people who live in a typical water-source area in their zone. These may include the Amazon Basin, the Great Lakes, the Mediterranean, and the Yellow River. Students will fill in the two work-sheets to guide them in their study.

3. When the study is finished, the groups will compile their data and prepare a chart showing how people in the more and less densely populated areas live.

4. In a debriefing session the teacher should lead students to conceptualizing these ideas:

   4.1 There are factors other than the obvious ones of skin color, speech patterns, and national origins determining many cultural patterns.

   4.2 "Many distinctive types of food, shelter, and clothing have been developed around the world as a result of the combination of products available, either natural or manufactured." (from Social Studies Guide for Curriculum Development by the Indiana Department of Public Instruction, "Concept Chart: Anthropology," pp D-10, 1978.)

   4.3 "Much of the culture of any society is dependent upon its geographical location, abundance, and the availability of natural resources." (from Social Studies Guide for Curriculum Development by the Indiana Department of Public Instruction, "Concept Chart: Sociology," pp. D-15, 1978.)

Materials

For each child:

1. World map (outline).

2. Crayons or colored pencils for identifying map areas. Use of different patterns in pen or pencil is all right.

3. Access to encyclopedias or textbooks where rainfall, temperature, and population graphs and maps can be located.

4. Assignment worksheets (attached).

5. Appropriate pictures, slides, filmstrips, magazines. It is ideal if the resource center or school library can be used.

For each group:

1. A fresh set of worksheets and a world outline map.
2. Magazines with pictures appropriate for clipping. Students may also draw or copy pictures to illustrate the study.
3. A large sheet of newsprint for display purposes.
4. Crayons, scissors, paste.
5. Theme paper.

WORKSHEET ONE: HOW THE ENVIRONMENT AFFECTS SOCIETIES

Basic Human Needs	Some Important Sources
Water	Wells, springs, rivers, lakes, oceans
Food	Soil, water, grasslands, trees, animals
Shelter	Rocks, trees, grasslands, soil, animal skins
Clothing	Plants, animals, minerals

1. Circle the area which you are studying:

   Arctic Subarctic Temperate Subtropic Tropic

2. Map work:

   2.1 Using an atlas and an outline map of the world, locate and identify the major water systems in your area.

   2.2 Lightly color or shade places of denser population.

   2.3 Using a different color or pattern, do the same with places which have a scarce population.

3. Reading graphs: (Choose ONE water system and complete these statements.)

   3.1 The average rainfall for the year is about _____.

   3.2 It is heaviest during these months: _____.

   3.3 It is lightest during these months: _____.

   3.4 The average temperature for the year is about _____.

   3.5 It is highest during these months: _____.

   3.6 It is lowest during these months: _____.

   3.7 It seems that such a climate would have the following kind of natural ecology:

   _____.

4. Reading pictures from books, magazines, films, slides, filmstrips.

   4.1 Examine pictures of thinly populated areas in the system you are studying and complete the following statements.

a. The most common sources for food are_____

_____.

b. The characteristics of the homes include_____

_____.

c. Special activities of men and boys include_____

_____.

d. Special activities of the women and girls include

_____.

e. Other interesting things in this society are___

_____.

4.2 Examine pictures of more densely populated areas in the system you are studying and complete the following statements.

a. The most common sources for food are_____

_____.

b. The chief characteristics of the homes include_

_____.

c. Activities of the men and boys include_____

_____.

d. Activities of the women and girls include_____

_____.

e. Other interesting things in this society are___

_____.

WORKSHEET TWO: HOW THE ENVIRONMENT AFFECTS SOCIETIES

Group Work

All members studying the same zonal area meet and compare notes.

1. Using a new copy of Worksheet One, fill it in with items that are the same, or nearly the same, on most of your worksheets.

2. Prepare a large display paper showing what you have learned about most of the people in your zone on the earth.

3. Help each other locate and cut out or draw pictures to illustrate the lifestyles of people in your zone of the earth.

4. Have one group member write a paragraph explaining why these people live as they do. Help the student writing by giving him or her ideas.

5. Display your written paragraph and chart where others can learn from your work.

MAPS VS. PHOTOGRAPHS

Suggested Classroom Use: Geography
U.S. History

Rationale

Students often have difficulty relating maps to what is seen by the eye on the ground or in photographs. This lesson will help develop students' awareness of the physical geography of the United States.

Objectives

1. Students will identify specific land features from aerial and/or satellite photographs.

2. Students will identify the same specific land features from conventional road and political maps of selected areas.

Procedures

1. Tell students that they are going to examine the physical geography of the U.S. from two different perspectives. Both represent reality, but one is photographs and the other is maps. Students will be asked to match up the photos with the maps and maps with photos.

2. Particularly effective areas for using aerial or satellite slides are the Rocky Mountains, the Appalachian Mountains of Pennsylvania or West Virginia, the Atlantic coast in Massachusetts, the Carolinas, or Florida; San Francisco, the Great Lakes region, or the Mississippi delta area. Gather photographs, road maps, and other U.S. maps showing natural and artificially constructed features.

3. Using an opaque projector, show students one photograph and ask them to identify the physical features, mountains, valleys, lakes, rivers, highways, dams, etc.

4. Show several maps, some of the same area as the photograph and some of a different area or areas.

5. Ask students to identify the map or maps of the area shown in the photograph, stating their reasons for their choice(s).

6. Repeat this activity several times using different photographs and maps.

7. You may want to divide the class into small groups to do this exercise. Have six to eight different photographs and maps placed around the room. Groups rotate around the room matching up maps and photographs.

Materials

1. Photo Atlas of the United States, Ward Ritchie Press, Pasadena, California.

2. Any good, regional maps of the U.S. The National Geographic Society prints many excellent ones, as do other organizations.

3. By using a "slide-maker" (Kodak makes one) you can make your own slides simply and inexpensively.

4. OPTIONAL: N.M. Short and P.D. Lowman, Jr. and S.G. Freden, Mission to Earth: Landsat Views the World, NASA, Washington, D.C., 1976 (about $15).

PIONEER TRAVEL

Suggested Classroom Use: U.S. History
Geography

Rationale

This lesson utilizes a role-play format to help students visualize pioneer travel in the 1840s. It encourages students to use primary sources to gather evidence. Students make decisions based on data they have gathered and their priorities for the cross-country trip.

Objectives

1. Students will use primary and secondary source material to gather evidence for decision-making.

2. Students will interpret data drawing conclusions concerning their needs.

3. Students will become aware of the difficult choices involved in basic survival of frontier families traveling cross-country in the 1840s.

Procedures

1. Students imagine they are pioneers in the 1840s traveling to California from the east coast. They decided to go to St. Louis by train and are now ready to join a wagon-train to make the rest of the trip to California.

2. Divide the class into groups of three to five students. Each group will represent a unit going in one wagon.

3. Provide students with primary and secondary sources describing travel conditions in the 1840s. Diaries, letters, drawings, poems, and first-hand newspaper stories are all primary sources. Each group must decide what to take on their wagon. They must be sure to consider travel conditions and needs as well as personal preferences.

4. To help students make these choices, have them answer the following questions.

   4.1 How large is my wagon going to be?

   4.2 Why did we decide to go by wagon rather than by ship around Cape Horn?

4.3 What kinds of food should we take and how much of each staple? How will we preserve it?

4.4 What kind of food can we expect to be able to obtain from the land and water as we travel?

4.5 How much water will we take and how will it be carried?

4.6 What personal belongings should we include?

4.7 What tools do we need? What about spare parts for the wagon?

4.8 Will we use horses or mules to pull our wagon? What are the advantages and disadvantages of each? How will we provide for our animals?

4.9 Which family members will walk and which will ride in the wagon?

4.10 How long will the trip take?

5. Once these and other questions have been answered by the groups have the entire class discuss each group's choices and the reasons for them. No groups should change their lists at this time.

6. Give each group a set of "pioneer travel experience cards" and tell them they are beginning their journey. Number the cards and have students respond to each situation as a group and write down how they handled or reacted to the situation.

   Here are some ideas for "pioneer travel experience cards." Cards can be the same or different for each group. Each group should have between five and ten cards depending on the time available for this activity.

   6.1 A mule loses a shoe.

   6.2 A flash flood carries off the family Bible.

   6.3 The water barrel breaks.

   6.4 The wagon load is too heavy for the horses to pull. What goes?

   6.5 The six-year-old son dies.

   6.6 A family fight causes extreme tension.

6.7 One wagon-train member kills another in a fight.

6.8 One family decides to go alone to look for a shortcut through the mountains.

7. After all cards have been discussed by the groups, have the class discuss their experiences and how they handled situations. Ask: "Did anyone quit?" "What adjustments were made?" "What were group members feeling?" "How were decisions made in the family?"

8. Summarize by discussing the realities of wagon-train travel in the 1840s and what motivated these people. Discuss the aspects of the society which encouraged frontier strength, self-reliance, law and order, and a sense of community. How did the travel experiences of the 1800s contribute to the frontier spirit?

Materials

Primary and secondary sources; "pioneer travel experience cards."

WHO WAS THE FIRST PRESIDENT?

Suggested Classroom Use: U.S. History

Rationale

Students are usually willing to accept too many "facts of history" as irrefutable. This exercise presents two apparently contradictory facts. It is designed to help students understand that the interpretation of history depends upon different writers' view of it.

Objectives

1. Students will understand the time sequence of the Confederation period and the ratification of the U.S. Constitution.
2. Students will gain information on the Confederation period.
3. Students will recognize that historical "facts" are interpretations of the past and can differ depending on the interpretation.

Procedures

1. Ask students to name the first President of the United States. Inform them that George Washington was not, even though most people think of him as the first.
2. Have students check their texts. They will say that George Washington was the first president. Tell them you have evidence to the contrary.
3. Pass out information on John Hanson and have students read it.
4. Help explain the contradiction by asking the following questions.
   - 4.1 When did our nation officially begin? (1776)
   - 4.2 When did George Washington first take office? (1789)
   - 4.3 What happened between those years? (Confederation period)
   - 4.4 Did we have any leaders during the Confederacy? (...)

5. Lead students to point out that Washington was the first president under the government of the U.S. Constitution.

6. Ask which of the two men is usually, if not always, said to be the first president. How have historians chosen to interpret the terms "president of the United States"? (The U.S. did not really become official until the Constitution was ratified.) Summarize by pointing out that "facts" are mirrors of reality--based on the interpretations of the viewers. This is especially true when you are considering the past.

Materials

Fact sheet on John Hanson. (attached)

JOHN HANSON, FIRST UNITED STATES PRESIDENT,
REMAINS FORGOTTEN MAN

By Robert Betts
Copley News Service

John Hanson never chopped down a cherry tree or threw a dollar across the Potomac, so far as is known. His only claim to fame is that he preceded George Washington as president. Yet many Americans have never heard of him. Few histories refer to him. He gets but a brief mention in some encyclopedias.

One biography, however, that aims to set matters right by giving due credit to the man whom history passed by, is "John Hanson; Our First President." Written by Seymour W. Smith, it has been republished by the Invest-In-America National Council as part of its Heritage Series to mark the Bicentennial.

Hanson was a force in Colonial politics long before the American Revolution. Born at Mulberry Grove, Charles County, Maryland, a direct descendant of Scandinavian royalty, he became a leading figure in the Maryland Assembly and headed the Association of Maryland Freemen, an early patriotic group. "John Hanson's talents as a military organizer, his tireless energy in supporting Washington's army with men, arms, and ammunition, and his other war activities were of incalculable value to the Continental cause," his biographer states.

As head of the Maryland delegation in Congress at Philadelphia, he led his state in the bitter land fight which threatened to split the country during the confusing, formative years. He would not add his signature to the Articles of Confederation, which the other twelve states had signed, until they ceded and gave to the new country forever all the land they claimed outside of their own borders.

With its great wealth, as well as its geographical and military importance, Maryland could afford to hold out alone. It refused to compromise. Hanson demanded full compliance or nothing. At last the others gave in. Hanson had won a victory for the principle that all undeveloped land should belong to the nation, and had prepared the way for national expansion. For the part he played he was, on November 5, 1781, elected "President of the United States in Congress Assembled." Washington was likewise Commander of the Armies of the United States "in Congress Assembled."

Most historians hold that the Articles of Confederation, though contributing to the technique of government, were quite unsatisfactory in practice because of the subordinate part occupied by

the new central government. It is said that Congress, depending upon the states for its funds and for the execution of its decrees, found itself to be little more than a legislative-executive body attempting to reconcile the policies of the various states. Hanson's champion disagrees.

He writes: "Historians, in their hurry to pass on to the presidency of George Washington, have neglected the eight years that lay behind him, and between his election and Hanson's." "They have led us to believe that the government during those years was a thing of shreds and patches, at odds with itself, complaining of the difficulties of governing; they have blandly supposed that it was a government without a head; and that this nation, with nothing more to guide it than a few untidily selected and fractious gentlemen, was yet recognized as a nation by the rest of the world, and was able to transact business of great and enduring importance with the rest of the world."

The biography continues: "In the years before Washington's presidency, America made treaties of peace and treaties of alliance, contracted loans, received and sent ambassadors; during those years it set its house in order, providing for a standard currency, a Federal bank, a postal service, a standing army--and much of what it did then has survived almost unaltered to the present day; and are we to suppose that all this was accomplished without leadership just because a single fact in history was stated without research and must now be upheld at all costs?"

The author gives his own views about what led to the agitation for a new Federal Constitution. He believes it was adopted not so much in order to "form a more perfect Union." "That the Articles of Confederation formed the United States as a perpetual nation nobody could dispute," he states. Rather, he says, the Second Constitution was pushed through by a group of wealthy men, led by Alexander Hamilton--a "complex and mysterious character"--in order to safeguard their own interests and those of their associates.

Whether or not the Articles of Confederation were dissolved for materialistic rather than idealistic reasons, as he charges, Washington himself called them "little more than the shadow without the substance."

The Constitution was signed September 17, 1789, establishing the system of Federal government which began to function in 1789. Washington was unanimously elected the first president under this Constitution, and he took office April 30, 1789.

Hanson had retired from office in November, 1782, because of ill health, having served one year all but a day. His associate

Daniel Carroll had been elected to act as his substitute. Hanson died November 22, 1783, to become "obliterated from our national consciousness, a forgotten hero, an unsung president."

At least he has a place in the National Capitol Building at Washington, D.C. He stands there in Statuary Hall, a bronze figure in Frock Coat, triangular hat and knee breeches, staring across at the statue of George Washington.

THERE GOES THE NEIGHBORHOOD

Suggested Classroom Use: Political Science
Civics
Government
Sociology
U.S. History

Rationale

Since most people have never held public office, they are unaware of the pressures placed on public officials about decision-making. This lesson is designed to help students become more aware of these pressures.

Objectives

1. Through role-play, students will become aware of the pressures placed upon local officials when making legislative decisions.

2. Students will submit a brief written reaction to the role-play situation demonstrating their understanding of the pressures placed upon local officials when making legislative decisions.

Procedures

1. For purposes of the role play, the teacher should select an area near enough to the school that many students will be at least slightly familiar with it. For example, in Michigan the Great Lakes resort area near Traverse City is a good choice. You should select a place that makes sense to the kids.

2. Present students with a "situation sheet" establishing something like a major oil company planning to build an oil refinery near a resort area. Obviously, the situation might vary considerably from school to school.

3. The construction period will last two to three years and will bring several hundred jobs during construction and sixty to seventy-five permanent jobs at the facility. The present unemployment rate in the area is 10-12% in summer and 20-25% during winter. The total cost of the facility will be about $50,000,000. The annual payroll for the permanent employees will be about $1,800,000 to $2,250,000. The refinery will process oil brought into the Great Lakes via the St. Lawrence Seaway from the Middle East.

4. Students should be assigned roles of County Board Chairperson, six to eight Board members, Secretary to the Board, three or four top oil company officials who are in town to "sell" the project, mayors of two or three neighboring towns, Chamber of Commerce members, resort facility owners, students from the local community college or university, some local clergymen, local union officials and members, and any other groups to help fill out the needs of the group. DON'T FORGET the editor and owner of the local newspaper.

5. Two Board members are in favor of the project and two are against it. Some of the others are logically on one side or the other. DON'T STACK IT SO AS TO PRE-ORDAIN THE OUTCOME. Also include some "don't know or care"s.

6. Students represent a large group who are powerless since they are from outside the area and can't vote, so the Board simply ignores them. Sometimes this is realistic. (In Michigan, students who register to vote in their college community are eligible voters in that community. Check your state on this one.)

7. Warn class members to keep their role sheets away from other groups--spies, you know.

8. Set up the situation and distribute the role sheets on the first day. It is helpful to pick a strong student with wide peer respect to be the Board chairperson as this person will have her/his hands full. Help out with simple Roberts Rules.

9. Also on the first day let the various groups meet to determine what their roles demand and set policies for themselves. This might extend into the second day so information and organization can be complete enough to be effective.

10. Brief Board members on their job. They must listen to testimony from any group or citizen who wishes to speak, question any they wish, and, considering the necessity of granting a zoning variance before construction begins, decide whether the company will be allowed to build there. Following the Board's decision an election will be held among the local people to determine whether the Board will be retained in office.

11. Keep the length of hearings flexible. Two or three days should be the maximum time. The simulation should leave your students wanting more--not wishing you'd stopped it earlier. You may want to considerably shorten them from the maximum recommended.

12. When the Board actually debates the decision to rezone, let them retire to a private or semi-private place. However, if you live where open meetings are required by law, an open meeting must be held. After announcing the decision, hold the election (item 10 above).

13. In debriefing ask "Did class members carry their roles realistically?" "What problems were inherent in the situation?" "What was an effective approach for each of the different groups to take in achieving their desired result?" Discuss the pressures legislators face when considering public policy issues.

14. Have each student write a paper describing his or her role and the various roles that were played out during the role-play. Have students identify conflicting wants and needs between each of the roles. Also have students include reasons why they think one pressure group won over another in the final decision. What kinds of tactics were used by each role and group and do they agree or disagree?

Materials

1. "Situation sheet" and roles for each student. Keep some extras in case some are lost.

2. A sketched map of the area being considered. Ideally this should be at least 20" x 30". Using a familiar location adds realism to the situation.

3. A location where a long table can be set up for the Board to sit around. A large room is best.

4. Patience and imagination. You'll have to improvise some details as the situation becomes unique to your classroom.

SCHOOLS AND POLITICS

Suggested Classroom Use: Political Science
Civics
Government

Rationale

Students should realize that political activity is all around them, not just in the city, state, and national governments. One method to help students with this concept is to identify political activity and political action as it applies directly to them. By starting with any problem related to school life you can show students that political activity applies to informal as well as formal groups and issues.

Objectives

1. Students will become aware that the school is a political environment.
2. Students will be able to discuss and evaluate problems affecting their school environment.
3. Students will be able to make decisions based on the feasibility and consequences of their political action.
4. Students will see themselves as political participants.

Procedures

1. Divide the class into groups of four for "brainstorming" to answer these questions.
   - 1.1 What are some of the problems of school life at your school?
   - 1.2 Which of the problems do you think would be particularly difficult to solve?
2. Have each group pick one problem which seems most urgent and answer the following questions.
   - 2.1 Who or what groups could deal with the problem?
   - 2.2 What are some of the specific difficulties involved in solving this problem?

3. Have each group report on their problem and evaluation of it to the entire class.

4. Ask the class which school problem they would like to investigate. Help the class define the problem and identify possible political groups or people having direct or indirect relationships to it. For example, students may identify the problem as the dangerous street crossing between the bus stop and the school building. Ask who is directly and/or indirectly involved with this situation. In this case the list would include the school administration, teachers, students, the city road and sign department, parents, etc.

5. Divide the students into groups to work on possible solutions to the problem.

6. Have students interview various groups and individuals involved with the problem. How do their fellow students feel? What do the teachers suggest be done? What does the administration have to say?

7. Discuss reactions students encountered during the interviews. Answer the following questions.

   7.1 Who has power to solve the problem?

   7.2 What possible solutions are most likely to be recommended by each person interviewed and why?

   7.3 What are the possible consequences for each alternative?

8. Once students are aware of other people as political actors shift their attention to their roles in this particular situation. Students should consider which political actors have the greatest "resources," and what they are. Political resources include authority, support of others, knowledge, money, and any attribute that gives them power. Discuss with students what actions they would like to take, how they would implement their suggestions, and what possible reaction may come from the school and community.

9. Organize students into work groups with each group to become involved in action related to the problem. Students could interview, conduct surveys, present petitions, make recommendations, call for and conduct meetings, request and conduct student assemblies, etc.

10. Whatever the outcome of the political action, discuss with the students the political aspects of their school. Summarize by asking students to give other examples of how their school is a political environment. Help students recognize what kinds of political activity worked best in this environment and why.

TEENAGE DRINKING LAWS

Suggested Classroom Use: Political Science
Sociology
Civics
Government
U.S. History

Rationale

One important skill in any social studies classroom is the ability to gather data and make interpretations based on evidence. This lesson's purpose is to increase student awareness of teenage traffic fatalities and accidents as related to teenage drinking laws. Students will gather evidence and draw conclusions from the evidence.

Objectives

1. Students will collect data about teenage drinking laws and teenage traffic fatalities and accidents in each state.
2. Students will report their findings on an outline map of the United States.
3. Students will interpret the data and draw conclusions based on the evidence.
4. Students will gain awareness of the relationship of drunken driving and traffic fatalities and accidents for teenagers.
5. Students will suggest ways by which teenage traffic fatalities and accidents due to alcohol ingestion can be reduced.

Procedures

1. On an outline map of the U.S., identify those states with legal drinking ages of 18, 19, 20, and 21. Color all states with the same drinking age the same color. Choose a different color to represent each different legal drinking age.
2. Locate statistical evidence for each state on the following items.
   - 2.1 Teenage traffic fatalities due to alcohol ingestion in 1960 and 1977.
   - 2.2 Teenage traffic accidents related to alcohol in 1960 and 1977.

3. Identify the states that have changed the legal drinking age. Mark those states that have lowered the legal drinking age with a circle. Mark those that have increased the legal drinking age with a square.

4. If there has been an increase in teenage traffic fatalities and accidents due to drunken driving, mark that state with a "+." If a state shows a decrease mark it with a "-."

5. Ask students to state the relationship, if any, between the lowering of the drinking age and the number of traffic accidents and fatalities due to alcohol ingestion. Do states with a lower drinking age have a higher proportion of alcohol-related traffic accidents and fatalities? Do states that changed to a lower or higher legal drinking age have changes in the proportion of accidents due to alcohol?

6. Have students respond in writing to the following hypothesis: "The lowering of the drinking age to 18 has had a tendency to increase the number of teenage traffic fatalities and accidents."

7. Discuss conclusions in terms of other variables, like the 55 mph speed limit, better driver education, increases or decreases in the use of marijuana, population increases, percentage changes in teenage drivers, etc.

8. Summarize the lesson by asking the students to state findings and possible conclusions. Discuss how state officials and private citizens can help prevent traffic fatalities caused by alcohol consumption.

Materials

1. Outline maps of the United States.

2. Crayons.

3. Research materials and statistical reports. Call your local library for the best sources of this information.

STEREOTYPING

Suggested Classroom Use: Sociology
Social Problems

Rationale

One recent social studies trend is to help students examine and clarify their own values and biases. This lesson will help students recognize how they consciously or unconsciously categorize people based on stereotyped beliefs. It will help students analyze their own beliefs and could be used as an introductory lesson for any unit on stereotyping.

Objectives

1. Students will develop a definition for "stereotype."
2. Students will describe their own stereotypes for a given list of identifiable groups.
3. Students will discuss their stereotypes and compare them with other people's views.
4. Students will discuss positive and negative aspects of using stereotypes.

Procedures

1. Have students write a brief paragraph describing what the following are like (looks, intelligence, education, lifestyle).

   1.1 Jet setter
   1.2 "Sweet little old lady"
   1.3 Mother-in-law
   1.4 Librarian
   1.5 Olympic champion
   1.6 Belly dancer

2. After each student has had an opportunity to describe each, compare the similarities and differences between these reports. Ask why similarities in responses exist.
3. Situation: Suppose it is one week before Christmas and you are buying a gift for each of the following: Harry Skinner, a cab driver; Marsha Truelove, a Red Cross volunteer; Freddy Foster, a sixth-grade "A" student; and Abigail Watson. Which of the following gifts would you choose for each?

a desk dictionary	a pair of skis
a rocking chair	a leather jacket
a make-up kit	a "Kiss" album
a first aid kit	two tickets to the opera

3.1 Have students match gifts with the persons. Discuss the selections and the reasons for selecting each gift.

3.2 After each student has indicated the gifts he or she would give, then reveal the following information.

a. Harry is a voice student who drives a cab in his spare time. He has nothing against leather jackets, but he'd prefer the opera tickets.

b. At 16, Marsha thinks "Kiss" is super. She listens to them while doing volunteer work in the Red Cross canteen every afternoon. She doesn't need a first aid kit to serve coffee and cokes to servicemen.

c. Freddy is working on a clown routine for the school talent show right now. A make-up kit would help his act a lot more than would a dictionary.

d. Born in Colorado, Abigail still enjoys skiing. She would put those skis to good use and has no need for a rocking chair just yet.

4. After doing the two activities, have students collectively develop a definition of "stereotypes." This can be done as a class or in groups of three to four students.

5. Discuss with the class the positive and negative implications of depending on stereotypes.

Positive: One doesn't have to think about an individual when relying exclusively on stereotypes.

Negative: The use of stereotypes denies an individual the right to be who he or she is--different and unique from everyone else. Relying on stereotypes is a form of prejudice and can lead to discrimination. The use of stereotypes may interfere with one's ability to get to know other people.

FAMILIES

Suggested Classroom Use: Sociology
U.S. History

Rationale

Family size and composition may have changed in recent years, but the family is still the basic social unit in American society. Families usually consist of a father, mother, children, and may include other close relatives such as grandparents, aunts, and uncles. Also, some family units include adopted children, stepchildren, stepfathers and stepmothers. Single parent homes now represent between 25% and 40% of American families.

The purpose of the family has always been, and still is, to provide basic needs of food, clothing, shelter, protection, and love. Family customs differ due to traditions and backgrounds stemming from the family's country of origin. This lesson is designed to help students better understand the concept of family.

Objectives

1. Students will collect information on different members of their own families.
2. Students will identify ways in which their families provide for their own needs and ways in which the family members depend on each other.
3. Students will become aware of the uniqueness of their own family.
4. Students will be able to identify countries from which their ancestors emigrated and learn something of the cultures from which they came.

Procedures

1. Have students list on paper all family members with whom they have daily or weekly contact. Have them use circles or squares to indicate members of the family unit. Each family member should be labeled with his or her name and relationship to the student.

2. By each family member list ways in which he or she contributes to the family unit. This includes tasks that are done, jobs bringing money to the family, and time spent in ways beneficial to members of the family.

3. Have students share ways in which their own families provide for and support each other. Discuss with students benefits of the family unit. Have students speculate what it would be like without families--both the benefits and drawbacks.

4. Have students write short stories describing traditions or customs unique to their family. Students could also draw pictures of their families engaged in a mutual activity.

5. Have students ask parents and/or grandparents about the ethnic origin of their family. Help them locate the country (countries) of their ancestors on a world map.

6. Students can investigate their ancestors' immigration to this country, the conditions they encountered, and the process of assimilation or exclusion they faced.

7. Summarize by helping students define the concept of "family."

Materials

1. One large sheet of paper for each student.

CONFERENCE PARTICIPANTS

Charles Duffy
Principal
Orchard Park School
Munster, Indiana

Ellen Erlanger
Social Studies Faculty
Jones Junior High School
Columbus, Ohio

Jo Ann Foster
Media Coordinator
Milford High School
Milford, Michigan

Robin Franklin
Social Studies Faculty
Pioneer High School
Ann Arbor, Michigan

Jerry Graham
Social Studies Chairperson
Shaker Heights High School
Shaker Heights, Ohio

Burdell Hall
Social Studies Chairperson
Morton High School
Morton, Illinois

Alan Hughes
Social Studies Chairperson
North Putnam Junior/Senior High
Roachdale, Indiana

John Jenkins
Social Studies/Foreign Languages
Chairperson
Larkin High School
Elgin, Illinois

William Kiddle
Social Studies Faculty
Maine Township High Schoop West
Des Plaines, Illinois

Ronald Klene
Social Studies Chairperson
Lawrence North High School
Indianapolis, Indiana

Leone Little
Social Studies Chairperson
Forest Manor Junior High School
Indianapolis, Indiana

Norman McRae
Director of K-12 Social Studies
Detroit Public Schools
Detroit, Michigan

Martin Marciniak
Social Studies Chairperson
Morton Middle School
Munster, Indiana

Anna Mayans
Director, Elementary Education
Xavier University
Cincinnati, Ohio

Mark Mikel
Social Studies Chairperson
Utica Community Schools
Utica, Michigan

Carroll Phillips
Social Studies Chairperson
Franklin Junior High School
Fort Wayne, Indiana

Ann Pictor
Social Studies Consultant
Illinois Office of Education
Springfield, Illinois

Marian Rietman
Social Studies Coordinator
Grimmer Middle School
Schererville, Indiana

Eleanor Ryckman
Social Studies Chairperson
Mansfield Senior High School
Mansfield, Ohio

Donald Salvucci
Social Studies Supervisor
Brockton High School
Randolph, Massachusetts

Richard Steele
Social Studies Chairperson
Harrison High School
Farmington Hills, Michigan

Bruce Wagner
Social Studies Chairperson
Ottowa Hills High School
Grand Rapids, Michigan

Robert Webb
Social Studies Chairperson
Southside Junior High School
Columbus, Indiana

Phyllis Warrick
Social Studies Chairperson
Central High School
Elkhart, Indiana

Shirley Woods
Secondary Consultant
Findlay City Schools
Findlay, Ohio

Barbara Wysocki
Social Studies Chairperson
LaSalle-Peru Township High School
LaSalle, Illinois

CONFERENCE CONSULTANTS

Alan Backler
Department of Geography
Social Studies Development Center
Indiana University, Bloomington

Robert Barr
Professor of Education
School of Education
Indiana University, Bloomington

Lee Ehman
Social Studies Education
School of Education
Indiana University, Bloomington

Judith Gillespie
Department of Political Science
Social Studies Development Center
Indiana University, Bloomington

Larry J. Griffin
Department of Sociology
Indiana University
Bloomington

Senator Joan Gubbins
Indiana State Senate
Indianapolis
Indiana

Ralph Janis
Department of History
Indiana University
Bloomington

Edward Jenkinson, Director
English Curriculum Study Center
Coordinator for School Language Arts
Indiana University, Bloomington

Jane Lowrie
Social Studies Consultant
Department of Public Instruction
Indianapolis, Indiana

Gerald Marker
Social Studies Development Center
Mid-America Project for Global
Perspectives in Education
Indiana University, Bloomington

Howard Mehlinger, Director
Social Studies Development Center
Department of History
Indiana University, Bloomington

Robert O'Neil
Vice President
Indiana University
Bloomington

John Patrick
Social Studies Development Center
Department of Political Science
Indiana University, Bloomington

Phillip Saunders
Department of Economics
Economics Curriculum Center
Indiana University, Bloomington

Mary Friend Shepard
Department of Elementary Education
School of Education
Indiana University, Bloomington

James Vaughan
Department of Anthropology
Indiana University
Bloomington

CONFERENCE STAFF

Anne Beversdorf
Editorial Assistant
Librarian
Social Studies Development Center
Indiana University, Bloomington

Miriam R. Jaycox
Library Assistant
Technical Coordinator
Social Studies Development Center
Indiana University, Bloomington

C. Frederick Risinger
Project Director
Coordinator for School Social Studies
Social Studies Development Center
Indiana University, Bloomington

Mary Soley
Editorial Advisor
Doctoral Candidate
Social Studies Development Center
Indiana University, Bloomington